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ABSTRACT

This study describes the changes in demographic characteristics of beginning teachers who entered the profession between 1956-57 and 1976. Existing literature on beginning teachers is examined to construct an image of the changes that have occurred among those choosing teaching careers. National and statewide samples are reviewed; however, demographic factors such as age, sex, race, and marital status are described only in national terms. A review of the literature on changes in characteristics includes information on: (1) age; (2) sex; (3) race; (4) marital status; (5) occupational inheritance; (6) commitment to teaching as a career; (7) idealism and locus of control; (8) academic ability and recruitment into the teaching occupation; (9) college selectivity, grade point average, and career commitment; (10) attrition among teachers selected into the occupation; and (11) academic ability and attrition of teachers from educational occupations. A list of sub-samples and tables, of the National Longitudinal Study, that will be examined in a final report is included. (JD)

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Analysis of Entry to Teaching Utilizing National Longitudinal Study Data

Preliminary Report

Victor S. Vance

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Who are the beginning teachers now? What are the characteristics of new teachers? In comparison with those who entered teaching in the past, have the characteristics of the group now entering teaching for the first time changed? What happens to these new teachers after they enter? Questions such as these have been asked by researchers interested in the occupational processes of recruitment, selection and retention of school teachers. Descriptive answers to these questions have been formulated based on national samples (Mason, 1961; Sharp and Hirshfield, 1975; Weaver, 1978, 1979) as well as state samples (Charters, 1970; Pavalko,1970; Mark and Anderson, 1978; Schlechty and Vance, 1981).

In addition, a number of other studies examine the characteristics of those persons teaching without separating out beginning teachers from experienced teachers or those who return to the classroom (see, for example, Graybeal, 1974; Charters, 1963, summarizes many of these findings on the social composition of the teaching occupation). Studies which examine the characteristics of all teachers at discrete points in time frequently report characteristics in terms of measures of central tendency such as the mean and mode. Commenting on approaches such as these, Charters (1963) states:

> The modal description is based upon the occupational group as it is currently constituted and does not necessarily represent the kinds of people now being recruited into teaching.
>
> Such a characterization of the teaching population in America, however, is overdrawn. Not only does it discount variations from the norm, but in this case it hides the systematic nature of such variations (p. 721).

Furthermore, the action of demographic forces that affect the number of persons to be served by educational occupations (see Weaver, 1978, 1979) as well as the changing employment patterns of women in the larger occupational structure (see Sweet and Jacobsen, no date) are destined to alter the social

composition of beginning teachers. Speaking to the variable effects of social forces, Charters (1963) states:

> Besides variations among teaching situations, major changes in social composition have occurred over the years, possibly at different rates in different teaching situations. Within recent years, teaching has undergone a transformation so great as to render obsolete many popular conceptions of the occupation. While the data are scanty, it is reasonably clear that the social forces shaping occupational composition have never been constant for any extended period in our history.... Conceivably, the very act of summarizing data on changes over the years in teacher characteristics in the various teaching situations would illuminate the nature of forces operating on the social composition of the teaching occupation (p. 723).

With this same spirit of intention, this study was begun. However, the scope of this study is limited to describing the changes in demographic characteristics of beginning teachers who entered between 1956-57 and 1976. As a partial version of the final report, this paper will examine the existing literature on beginning teachers in order to construct an image of the changes that have occurred among those recruited to teaching. This preliminary report will review both national and statewide samples; however, demographic factors such as age, sex, race and marital status will be described only in national terms because of regional variations. The studies based on statewide samples are cited to augment our understanding of retention and attrition patterns, particularly as these relate to academic ability. Following the literature review, a list of tables and characteristics of beginning teachers derived from the National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972 will be presented.

Literature Review

Age

Mason (1961), reporting on teachers who began their careers in 1956-57 found the median age to be 23.7 years with 64 percent under 25 years old. Fourteen percent were 30 or older and 4 percent were 40 or older.

Men were found on the average to be 3.1 years older than women with the median age 25.9 and 22.8 respectively. Women were narrowly distributed with 36 percent being 22 years old and 70 percent between 21 and 24 years old. In contrast, only 13 percent of the males were 22 and only 39 percent fell between the ages of 21 and 24 years. In general, males were more widely distributed from 22 to 34 years of age than were females although 13 percent of beginning female teachers were over 30 years of age. This age distribution, especially of males and to a lesser extent, females, reflects what Lortie (1975) has termed "the wide decision range" and the pattern of "eased entry." In other words, people can decide to become teachers at any of a number of points with relatively few barriers to entry.

It should be pointed out that little variation in age is expected to be found among beginning teachers in the NLS data set because it is comprised initially of 1972 high school graduates, a population with a very narrow age range. Sharp and Hirshfield did not report age distributions because their original sample consisted of a narrow age range to begin with - 1967 college freshmen.

Sex

Mason found that 64 percent of beginning teachers in 1956-57 were female and 36 percent were male. Sharp and Hirshfield reported that of the 1971 beginning teachers, 79.1 percent were female and 20.9 percent were male.

Race

Of the beginning teachers in 1956-57, 94 percent were White and 5 percent were Black; less than .5 percent were classed as "other." Sharp and Hirshfield's 1971 beginning teachers were 92.3 percent White and 4 percent Black and 3.7 percent other minorities.

Marital Status

Mason (1961) reported that 63 percent of the males and 42 percent of the females were married. As to be expected, the percent married increased with older age groups. However, Mason reports, females had a higher proportion of widowed, divorced and legally separated. Data on the marital status of the 1971 beginning teachers were not reported in the Sharp and Hirshfield study.

Occupational Inheritance

Mason asked "To what extent does teaching run in families?" of the beginning teachers in 1956-57: 15 percent of the women and 11 percent of the men came from families in which one or both parents were teachers or other educators. More women than men had mothers who were teachers. Of the beginning teachers in 1971, 11.8 percent of the men had one or both parents in an educational occupation compared to 11.0 percent of the women.

Commitment to Teaching as a Career

The future occupational plans of teachers are an indication of their degree of commitment to teaching as a career. Mason reported that 51 percent of the new teachers in 1956-57 said they would definitely or probably leave teaching within 5 years. Twenty-six percent of these were male; 65 percent were female. Only 19 percent said that it was extremely unlikely they would leave.

Only 29 percent of the men and 16 percent of the women expected to stay in teaching until retirement. Fifty-one percent of the men, compared with only 9 percent of the women wished to stay in education in a non-teaching job.

By 1971, 6.9 percent of the men and 3.1 percent of the women anticipated staying in teaching less than two years. 13.7 percent and 26 percent, respectively, expected to stay between two and five years. Those anticipating a

career more than five years in length but less than their working life accounted for 25.1 percent of the newly hired males and 39.1 percent of the newly hired females. 54.4 percent of the males compared with 31.9 percent of the females intended to teach most of their working life.

Idealism and Locus of Control

Mason examined the occupational values of beginning teachers by asking if they felt the indicated value could be achieved in teaching. Highest on the list were: "Give me an opportunity to work with people rather than things" and "Give me an opportunity to be helpful to others." Ninety-nine percent of all beginning teachers agreed these statements were descriptive of teaching. In addition, 93 percent agreed teaching provided a chance to exercise leadership and an opportunity to use their special abilities and aptitudes as requirements for an ideal job. Ninety-one percent said teaching "permitted me to be creative and original." Lowest on the list of ideal requirements provided by teaching was "provide me with a chance to earn a good deal of money" with 15 percent agreeing.

Sharp and Hirshfield asked similar questions of the 1971 beginning teachers. Ranked in order of agreement were: "Helping others who are in difficulty" (81.8 percent), "Having opportunities to be original and creative" (81.6 percent), "Having a stable, secure future" (75.4 percent). 44.6 percent said that "avoiding a high-pressure job" was very important or essential.

Locus of control - a measure of a person's personal sense of power and feelings of being subject to forces beyond his control - can be inferred from the 1971 teachers' response to the statement "Realistically, an individual person can do little to bring about changes in our society." 31.1 percent agreed.

Academic Ability and Recruitment into the Teaching Occupation

Pavalko (1970) surveyed a sample of 4,621 female Wisconsin high school seniors in 1957, and seven years later in 1964. He was able to identify five overlapping career categories based on career plans (1957) and career outcomes (1964):

1. Those who planned to become teachers.
2. Those who planned to become teachers but did not.
3. Those who planned to become teachers and did.
4. Those who did not plan to become teachers and did.
5. Those who became teachers regardless of their career plans.

Measured intelligence was based on the Henmon-Nelson test of Mental Ability (1942) and was taken by the sample in the junior high school. Pavalko divided measured intelligence into three categories - high (IQ above 116), medium (IQ 105-116) and low (IQ below 105) which yielded approximately equal numbers of females.

For recruitment into the occupation, he found that women ranked in the lower third were underrepresented (11%) while those in the highest third were overrepresented (56.8%). In addition, he found that those who did not plan to become teachers but did were disproportionately drawn from the higher ability level (58.5%). Having answered "Who is recruited into teaching?", Pavalko looked at retention in the teaching occupation by ability level. 72.9% of the lowest ability level remained, 56.7% of the middle ability level, and 59.4% of the highest ability level remained. Pavalko concluded: "Although teachers are recruited disproportionately from girls of higher measured intelligence, it is those of lower measured intelligence who continue working" (p. 352).

Sharp and Hirshfield's study focused on two phases of career development; change in career plans during college and recruitment from college in the first teaching job. In 1967 and 1971, respondents were asked to select their

career. All designating elementary school teacher, secondary school teacher, school counselor, school principal or superintendent were viewed as selecting an education career. Consequently, four categorizations were derived:

NEVER EDUCATION CAREER: those who had not selected an education career at 1967 or 1971 (60% of the 1971 graduates).
STABLES: those who had selected education both in 1967 and 1971 (20% of 1971 graduates).
RECRUITS: those selecting education careers in 1971 (11% of 1971 graduates).
DEFECTORS: those selecting education careers in 1967 only (8% of 1971 graduates).

Acknowledging that the key question occupying educational policy-makers is probably the effect of in-college career changes on the total pool of students selecting education as their first job, Sharp and Hirshfield found that defectors had the highest grade point averages among men and women and the highest proportion of grade point averages of B+ or better. Stable males were found to be lowest on both measures; stable females were lowest on the proportion of those with B+ or better; recruits were the lowest group on overall grade point average.

An academic index, which combined institutional selectivity and personal grade point average, originally developed by James A. Davis at the National Opinion Research Center, was applied to the categories. Stables were found to be the least likely to score high and the most likely to score low. Defectors scored higher than stables and female recruits. Male recruits had a higher proportion of high and low scorers than defectors.

By 1971, career choice changes had altered the overall ability-related factors associated with the teacher pool in the following ways: defectors' measure of college selectivity was higher than recruits as was their grade point average and, consequently, they were least likely to score low in the academic index. Choosing out of education during the college years was

found to result in a loss of high achieving students who attended quality private institutions. The net effect of in-college career choice out of education is best summarized by Sharp and Hirshfield (1975):

> To the extent that such students (high achievers from highly selective institutions) were initially interested in education careers, they more than others defected from them during the college years as other opportunities opened to them. The data suggest that in the early 1970's, more than in the early 1960's, able male students from modest backgrounds raised their sights and gave up teaching for more prestigious and lucrative careers. They also show that women of high ability and in comfortable financial circumstances sought alternatives to teaching careers and selected career jobs which required advanced training, such as college teaching and the professions (p. 10).

Sharp and Hirshfield created two additional categories from the 1971 graduates: those who received a contract to teach in the fall of 1971 or who had already begun to teach were classed as hireds. Those who had applied for a teaching position but did not receive a contract were classed as non-hireds. Seventeen percent of those intending to teach did not apply. Out of those who applied, 25% were hired. Results showed that non-hireds had attended more selective institutions than hireds although the median selectivity for the entire graduating cohort was considerably higher than either the hireds or the non-hireds. The greatest difference between hireds and non-hireds was grade point average and proportion of those with B+ or better average. Regardless of sex, race, region, institutional selectivity, career goal in education or not, and length of anticipated career - hireds had a higher mean grade point average and a greater proportion of B+ or better averages than non-hireds. Sharp and Hirshfield also found that a greater proportion of non-hireds scored low.

For males, the grade point average of hireds was slightly below all male graduates in the cohort. Women who were hired had slightly better grade

point averages than all of the women graduates. For both men and women, those not hired had considerably lower grades than the total graduating cohort.

College Selectivity, Grade Point Average and Career Commitment

Up to this point, Sharp and Hirshfield dealt entirely with selection of educational careers and recruitment into teaching. Because their study did not follow the 1967 freshman class beyond their first teaching job, they were unable to speak to the retention of teachers in the occupation. However, they did ask hired teachers "How long a teaching career do you anticipate? - Less than two years - two to five years - more than five years but not the rest of my working life - most of my working life." While this item - length of expected teaching career of teachers who obtained early jobs is by no means a substitute for direct measure of occupational retention, it does give us a glimpse of commitment to education as a career for between-group comparisons by measures related to academic ability - such as institutional selectivity and achievement measures.

They found that teachers with longer-term commitments came from schools of lower median selectivity - and more modest personal circumstances. Longer-term teachers had higher mean grade point averages - however, the proportion of men and women with B+ or better grade point averages with the shortest commitment was nearly the same for those with life-time commitment - 25.8% and 26.3%, respectively. Women who intended to make education a life-time career had a higher mean grade point average (3.02) than men with the same level of commitment (2.88). In both cases, the grade point average of life-time commitment oriented teachers was greater than the grade point average of those committed to less than two years. This held up for White and Black teachers.

When the academic index which adjusts grade point averages for institutional selectivity was applied to length of anticipated teaching career for hired teachers, the proportion of those highest on the academic index was greater for males committed to less than two years than for all other levels of commitment. For women, those highest on the academic index showed the same percentage for less than two years and for more than five years but not rest of working life. For males and females combined, those with the shortest commitment to teaching as a career had the highest proportion on the academic index. For combined males and females who scored high on the academic index, the largest percentage occurred among those with less than two years anticipated service in teaching.

W. Timothy Weaver (1979), writing from a demographic perspective on the effects of a decline in undergraduate enrollments, asked how this social force might affect the selection process which attempts to place talented members of each new age cohort eventually in roles of classroom teachers, administration and educational research. Weaver presents data on such accepted measures of academic ability as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), the American College Testing Program (ACT), Grade point averages (GPA), and SAT scores of graduating college seniors, class of 1976 from the National Longitudinal Study (NLS) - as well as NLS' own vocabulary, reading and math tests. In addition, Graduate Record Examination (GRE) and National Teacher Examination (NTE) score data are presented to show the effect on the quality of teachers by three conditions: (1) a decline in the job market in teaching; (2) a shift in student preferences away from the field of education and (3) a sharp decline in test scores of college-bound students and enrolled freshmen who intend to study in education and a pass-through of the score decline to graduating seniors and to those who find teaching positions.

Weaver presents data that raise crucial questions about the ability of the education profession to recruit and select students of high academic quality. Comparing 1976 college-bound high school seniors who intended to major in education with all college-bound seniors, he found the prospective education majors to be 34 points below the mean on verbal scores and 43 points below on math scores. Using longitudinal ACT test data, Weaver found statistically significant declines in English and especially math test scores since 1970 for high school seniors intending to major in education when compared to all college-bound high school seniors. He examined the ranking of intended majors by academic ability and found education ranked lower than business administration, biological sciences, engineering, health and medical fields, physical sciences and social sciences.

Enrolled college freshmen, 1975-76, indicating an education major, were ranked seventeenth on math scores and fourteenth on English scores out of nineteen possible fields of study in the ACT data. In addition, these scores have declined significantly when compared with the 1970-71 group.

College seniors who majored in education, according to NLS data reported by Weaver, ranked fourteenth out of sixteen fields on SAT verbal scores. Only seniors studying in office-clerical and vocational-technical fields scored lower on SAT verbal. For the SAT math scores, graduating education majors ranked fifteenth out of sixteen fields, with their scores being 52 points below the mean of all graduating seniors. The grade point average of education majors was 2.72 compared with 2.97 for all graduating seniors and was ranked twelfth out of the sixteen majors. Examining the scores made on the NLS tests for vocabulary, reading and math, Weaver found senior education majors below the overall population mean. The only group of majors whom seniors majoring in education ranked above on all three tests were clerical-office majors.

Graduate Record Examination (GRE) scores for education majors have shown statistically significant declines since 1970. Compared with other professional fields in 1975-76, these scores were reported by Weaver as being substantially lower than those of other majors. The GRE scores of education majors have also declined at a faster rate since 1970 than the total population taking the GRE.

Examining the National Teacher Examination (NTE) scores for education majors, Weaver found a net score decline of 20 points during the five years from 1969-70 to 1974-75, a decline reported as significant well beyond chance. Schlechty and Vance (1981) found in an examination of eight cohorts of beginning White female teachers in North Carolina, a consistent decline in NTE Common scores from 619 to 593 from 1973 to 1980.

Weaver examined the next step in the process of selection into the teaching occupation - applying for and finding a teaching position. He found among the NLS data that those who had majored in education and did not find teaching jobs - for whatever reason - had higher test scores than those who were teaching except in math (55.90 vs. 55.80). Although the difference in test scores between the two groups is small and, according to Weaver, only approaches statistical significance on the SAT - V and SAT - M scores. he concludes that the importance of these score comparisons is "... that the process of teacher selection and placement does not result in more academically competent teachers being selected" (p. 46). Consistent with the findings of Sharp and Hirshfield (1975), Weaver found slightly higher grade point averages among teacher candidates who were hired (2.86) than those not hired (2.79) which led him to suggest that employers perhaps use grades in determining which teachers to hire.

Weaver offers a general proposition that he says governs the allocation

of talent to different fields of study: "As a market demand for new graduates in any given field declines, not only will the quantity of potential students decline but also the quality of the applicant pool prepared to enter that field of study" (p. 32). Fewer students, according to Weaver (1979), are majoring in education and, among those who do, test scores are significantly lower. The better students are migrating to growth fields.

Attrition Among Teachers Selected into the Occupation

It has been thought that once teachers are employed, they are more likely to remain in the educational work force than they were in the past. According to this reasoning, increasing levels of unemployment among other occupations are thought to make teaching, an occupation that appears to have lost prestige, more attractive materially than it was during periods of relatively low unemployment. For the individual, the desire for job security is thought to take precedent over desires for occupational prestige and upward mobility, thereby retaining an increasingly larger percentage of entrants.

This one line of thought underlies many speculations of a continued oversupply of teachers. The data reported by Schlechty and Vance (1981) and Vance (1981) do not support this reasoning, at least for eight annual cohorts of entrants into the teaching occupation in North Carolina from 1973 to 1980.

White females left teaching after the first year at the highest rate of 17.37% (1973 cohort) and the lowest rate of 14.52% (1978 cohort). This represents a variation of 2.85%. Between 1974 and 1980, the range in the percent of White females leaving after one year varied only by .42% and stabilized around an attrition rate of close to 15% for first year White female teachers. While the rate of unemployment increased from 4.5% in 1974 to 6.6% in 1980, the teaching occupation showed no appreciable decline in the rate of attrition

of first year White teachers. In other words, first year teachers continued to leave their jobs at the same rate regardless of changes in the economy that might make the security of public school position relatively attractive.

Among all cohorts, the 1973 cohort had the highest mean NTE Common score. It is of additional interest to note that this same cohort had the highest rate of attrition for the first, second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth years when compared to the other six cohorts. Consequently, for White females who make up between 63% and 69% of each of the eight cohorts studied, it appears that the cohort with the highest mean NTE Common score also has the highest attrition rate over time.

By the beginning of the third year, the highest cumulative percentage of White females to drop out was 26.53% of the 1973 cohort. The lowest attrition rate after two years of experience was 20.58% of the 1976 cohort.

By the beginning of the fourth year, a high of 31.97% of the White females in the 1973 cohort had left as opposed to 25.75% of the 1976 cohort. For the four cohorts with four years of experience, 38.83% of the 1973 cohort did not return for a fifth year in education. The cohort with the largest number of White female returnees was the 1976 cohort with 31.38%. By the beginning of the sixth year, 42.40% of the 1973 White females had left education while 39.33% of the 1975 White females remained.

By the beginning of the seventh year, 45.04% of the 1973 White females and 40.41% of the 1974 White females had dropped out. At the beginning of the eighth year, only 52.93% of the original 1973 White females remain. Assuming that these patterns for White females hold up over time, it seems reasonable to project, based on the experience of the 1973 group, that nearly 50% of those who enter teaching in North Carolina in a given year will no

longer be employed in public schools in this state by the beginning of the eighth year. It is not known what proporiton of those who leave education in North Carolina are employed in education-related positions in other states.

Academic Ability and Attrition of Teachers from Educational Occupations

But what happens to the most academically able and the least academically able after they enter teaching? Schlechty and Vance (1981) and Vance (1981) examined the attrition rates of eight annual cohorts of persons entering teaching in North Carolina from 1973 to 1980 to answer this question.

The most striking pattern observed in their data has to do with the fact that those who score highest on the weighted common section of the National Teacher Examination are the most likely to leave education early and in the largest numbers regardless of race, sex or entrance year. Conversely, those who score lowest are more likely to stay regardless of race, sex or entrance year. This pattern contradicts the widely held belief that education, in spite of its inability to retain the brightest entrants, recruits the largest proportion of occupationally stable employees from the middle ability range. This data demonstrates that those most likely to stay, once having achieved a minimum score on the NTE, come from the least academically able.

The clearest evidence of this pattern exists for White females and White males. For example - using the 1973 cohort of White females - after seven years of teaching, the largest percentage of entering teachers, 62.5%, to remain in education as of 1980, were from the lowest scoring rank. Conversely, the smallest percentage, 37.3% of any rank of entering teachers to return to education in 1980 were from the highest scoring rank. In no case is the cumulative percentage of the highest scoring teachers retained ever larger

than the lowest scoring retained for all of the White cohorts, 1973-1979 when examined in the last year, 1980. What can be said about comparisons of the cumulative retention rate among highest and lowest scoring ranks in years other than 1980? The same statement can be made, regardless of the year one chooses to compare cumulative retention rates between the two scoring extremes. In sum, the highest scoring entering White teachers, in all cases, regardless of entrance year or successive years always leave education at rates greater than the lowest scoring.

What can be said about Black females and Black males during the same period? First, it should be pointed out that the unusually small retention rate for both Black females and Black males scoring in the lowest rank is explained by failure to meet minimum NTE score requirements under provisional certification. However, for Black females, in terms of absolute numbers, evidence of the same pattern for White females and males can be found; that is, the academically able tend to leave education in numbers greater than those who score lower on the NTE Common, except for those who fail to meet minimum score requirements. However, this pattern is not nearly as clear for Black females.

The more academically able Black females, represented by ranks 1, 2 and 3, returned to education at rates greater than the less academically able Black females in the 1973, 1974 and 1979 cohorts. In the 1975, 1976, 1977 and 1978 Black female cohorts, the less academically able returned to education at rates greater than the more academically able. In other words, examining each of seven cohorts at the beginning of their second year, the retention rate for the less academically able was higher in four out of seven cases than the rate for the more able. Although this pattern is similar for White females, it is not as clear. However, if we examine the cumulative

retention rate in the last year that we have data for each cohort, the same pattern takes on a bolder relief. For example, the less academically able Black females' cumulative retention rate is greater than the more academically able five cases out of seven. Furthermore, the age of the cohort may be related to retention patterns because it is in the youngest two cohorts, 1978 and 1979, that the more academically able are retained in larger numbers than the less academically able. Overall, Black females show generally the same trend in which the more academically able leave in larger numbers. However, the reversal of this pattern in the 1978 and 1979 Black female cohort may reflect a change in employment patterns of Black females. Is it the case that more Black females are leaving the classroom for education-related jobs?

What can be said about Black males' retention patterns and academic aiblity? By similarly collapsing ranks 1, 2 and 3 and ranks 7, 8 and 9, it is possible to get a somewhat better picture of who stays and who leaves education among Black males. Because only 40 Black males reported an NTE Common score in 1977, ranks 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 and ranks 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were combined to increase the number of Black males for that year. Consequently, for 1977, those scoring above 503.59 represented the more academically able and those scoring below represent the less academically able. Examining all seven cohorts at the beginning of their second year, the more academically able are retained at rates greater than the less academically able five out of seven times in the 1974, 1975, 1977, 1978 and 1979 cohorts. In 1973 and 1976, the less academically able stayed in education at rates greater than their more academically able counterparts. This represents a trend in opposition to that taken by White females. Speculatively, explanations having to do with movement from the classroom to

administrative or supervisory positions may have some relevance here. Additionally, Black males may view a career in education more favorably and may be supported in this view by their families and communities to a greater extent than their White counterparts. Furthermore, teaching, a traditional avenue of mobility for those from meager backgrounds, may offer more of an absolute gain in prestige, income, security and leisure for Black males than White males. Worsening conditions in the larger economy may also put classroom teaching and education in a better light.

Does this tendency for education to hold the more academically able Black males shift as the cohort gets older? By looking at the distributions in 1980, four of the cohorts - 1974, 1976, 1978 and 1979 - retained more of the less academically able. Again, since the numbers of Black males are small to begin with and in view of the lack of an overwhelming sense of direction in these patterns, one must view these generalizations with extreme caution. However, with regard to academic ability and the holding power of education for Blacks as compared to Whites, it is possible to state that once Blacks enter teaching, the tendency is to hold proportionately more Blacks than Whites.

Sub-Samples of the National Longitudinal Study That Will be Examined in the Final Report

In order to make descriptive statistics more meaningful, it is necessary to have other comparative samples that differ on characteristics that are assumed to make a difference. For this reason, the final report will be based upon comparisons among five sub-samples of the National Longitudinal Study data set. Initially, a sub file will be created of all persons who (1) responded to the NLS survey during the base year, first, second, third and fourth follow-up. This sub file will be divided into the following groups:

1. Non-Education College Graduates: This group will be composed of all college graduates other than education majors who are teaching, or have taught, or are seeking teaching jobs or indicate they intend to teach at age thirty.
2. Educational Defectors: All college graduates who indicate their major was in education but never taught, and have not sought a teaching job and do not intend to teach at age 30.
3. Unsuccessful Candidates: All college graduates who sought a teaching position but have not successfully obtained a teaching job.
4. Recruits: All persons who have taught or are now teaching.
5. Deferred Candidates: All persons who have not taught and have not sought a teaching job but intend to teach at age thirty.

In addition, two other sub groups will be created from Recruits:

4a. Career Teachers: Those who have taught and intend to teach at age thirty.

4b. Drop Outs: Those who have taught, are no longer teaching and do not intend to teach at age thirty.

Tables to be Included in the Final Report

The following series of tables will be used to describe and compare each of the above groups.

Table 1. Sex and Race Distribution
Table 2. Size of Community of Origin
Table 3. Selectivity of the College Entered
Table 4. Selectivity of the College Graduated From
Table 5. Socio-Economic Status
Table 6. College Grade Point Average
Table 7. Locus of Control at Entry to College and in Fourth Follow-Up
Table 8. Self Concept at Entry to College and in Fourth Follow-Up
Table 9. Life Values
Table 10. Work Values
Table 11. Measured Verbal Ability
Table 12. Mathematical Reasoning Ability
Table 13. Parental Occupational History

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